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ABSTRACT

A bilingual education teacher training packet (teacher's edition) on theories and research concerning bilingual education, second language acquisition, and communicative competence is presented. A theoretical framework for integrating these theories and a theoretical rationale for bilingual education are also presented. In addition to state-of-the-art reviews, the packet contains: a syllabus, a pretest and answer key, a glossary, learning activity objectives, a small group activity plan and discussion items, discussion item answer key, a posttest and answer key, and a discussion of the implications of the theoretical frameworks for teacher trainers. Narrative materials are presented on the following topics: (1) demographic context of bilingual education; (2) historical definitions of bilingual education; (3) communicative competence theories; (4) first and second language acquisition theoretical frameworks; (5) the myth of bilingual handicaps; (6) research findings regarding mother tongue development as a positive force; and (7) implications for syllabus design and materials development, teaching methods, and teacher training. One section of the packet entitled, "A Theoretical Rationale for Bilingual Education," by Jim Cummins, includes information on seven bilingual education program evaluations, along with a framework that addresses the complexity of first and second language relationships and the devleopmental relationships between first and second language proficiency. (SW)

ED226606

Series B: Language Proficiency Acquisition, Assessment, and Communicative Behavior

Packet I: Communicative Competence in Bilingual Education--Theory and Research

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Packet I:

Communicative Competence in Bilingual Education--Theory and Research

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BILINGUAL EDUCATION

TEACHER TRAINING MATERIALS

The bilingual education teacher training materials developed by the Center for the Development of Bilingual Curriculum - Dallas address five broad areas of need in the field of bilingual education:

Series A:	Bilingual Program Planning, Implementation, and Evaluation
Series B:	Language Proficiency Acquisition, Assessment, and Communicative Behavior
Series C:	Teaching Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies
Series D:	Teaching Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing
Series E:	Actualizing Parental Involvement

These materials are intended for use in institutions of higher education, education service centers, and local school district in-service programs. They were developed by experts in the appropriate fields of bilingual education and teacher training.

Series A addresses the critical issue of the effective planning and implementation of programs of bilingual education as well as efficient program evaluation. Sample evaluation instruments and indications for their use are included. Series B contains state-of-the-art information on theories and research concerning bilingual education, second language acquisition, and communicative competence as well as teaching models and assessment techniques reflecting these theories and research. In Series C, the content, methods, and materials for teaching effectively in the subject matter areas of mathematics, science, and social studies are presented. Technical vocabulary is included as well as information on those

aspects rarely dealt with in the monolingual content area course. Series D presents the content area of language arts, specifically the vital knowledge and skills for teaching listening, speaking, reading, and writing in the bilingual classroom. The content of Series E, Actualizing Parental Involvement, is directed toward involving parents with the school system and developing essential skills and knowledge for the decision-making process.

Each packet of the series contains a Teacher Edition and a Student Edition. In general, the Teacher Edition includes objectives for the learning activity, prerequisites, suggested procedures, vocabulary or a glossary of bilingual terminology, a bibliography, and assessment instruments as well as all of the materials in the Student Edition. The materials for the student may be composed of assignments of readings, case studies, written reports, field work, or other pertinent content. Teaching strategies may include classroom observation, peer teaching, seminars, conferences, or micro-teaching sessions.

The language used in each of the series is closely synchronized with specific objectives and client populations. The following chart illustrates the areas of competencies, languages, and intended clientele.

COMPETENCIES, LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION AND INTENDED CLIENTELE

AREAS OF COMPETENCIES	LANGUAGE	CLIENTELE
SERIES A. Bilingual Program Planning, Implementation, and Evaluation	English	Primarily supervisors
SERIES B. Language Proficiency Acquistion, Assessment, and Communicative Behavior	Spanish/ English	Primarily teachers and supervisors
SERIES C. Teaching Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies	Spanish/ English	Primarily teachers and paraprofessionals
SERIES D. Teaching Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing	Spanish/ English	Primarily teachers and Paraprofessionals
SERIES E. Actualizing Parental Involvement	Spanish	Primarily teachers, parents, and community liaisons

In addition to the materials described, the Center has developed a Management System to be used in conjunction with the packets in the Series. Also available are four Practicums which include a take-home packet for the teacher trainee.

The design of the materials provides for differing levels of linguistic proficiency in Spanish and for diversified levels of knowledge and academic preparation through the selection of assignments and strategies. A variety of methods of testing the information and skills taught in real or simulated situations is provided along with strategies that will allow the instructor to meet individual needs and learning styles. In general, the materials are adaptable as source materials for a topic or as supplements to other materials, texts, or syllabi. They provide a model that learners can emulate in their own classroom. It is hoped that teacher trainers will find the materials motivational and helpful in preparing better teachers for the bilingual classroom.

Introduction

In the past, most teacher training programs and materials have been based entirely on "expert's" knowledge, personal experiences of educators, and the inductive and deductive reasoning of program designers and planners (California State Department of Education). Such information is important but not sufficient enough to risk making important educational decisions. Therefore, these teacher training packets have been developed to bolster the validity of knowledge about bilingual education. Empirical knowledge is certain to improve the ability of educators to predict student outcomes of different types of students, given different types of treatments under different types of conditions.

The principles and application of the theories and research on communicative competence (Hymes, Canale, Swain, Cummins, Krashen, DiPietro) in Packet I are synthesized and empirically and experientially operationalized through the teaching models (DiPietro, Pusey, Calderón, Rubio) in Packet II. Packet III integrates theory and application through discussion of assessment procedures and problems in terms of language proficiency and academic achievement. The authors--Cummins, Calderón, DiPietro, Pusey, and Rubio--have been working collaboratively in search of a research-based theoretical framework for bilingual education. These packets represent a collection of some of the most current information on first and second language acquisition. The authors hope that these efforts will trigger application and improvement of these works for further refinement of bilingual programs.

Topical Outline

- Demographic Context of Bilingual Education
- Historical Definitions of Bilingual Education
- Communicative Competence Theories
- First and Second Language Acquisition Theoretical Frameworks
- The Myth of Bilingual Handicaps
- Mother Tongue Development as a Positive Force: Research Findings
- Implications for Teacher Trainers

Rationale

The growing interest in the problems of language minority students in in the United States has been accompanied by an enormous number of books, articles, and conferences filled with "how-to" workshops and materials. Often, however, advice regarding approaches, methods, strategies, and techniques for effectively educating language minority students is offered without any concern or explanation of empirical evidence.

For the most part, bilingual educators do coincide in their programmatic goals. That is, regardless of the approach taken, at the end of the treatment period language minority students should exhibit (1) high levels of English language proficiency, (2) appropriate levels of cognitive/academic development, and (3) adequate psychosocial and cultural adjustment (OBBE, 1981). However, successful attainment of these goals is far from being widespread. Part of the difficulty can be attributed to the absence of a theoretical framework upon which programs for language minority students can be based. Without a framework, policy makers, teacher trainers, and class-

room decision makers are often unable to focus consistently on the psychosocial and educational factors which influence language minority students' achievement.

This packet attempts to convey the importance of achieving the above three goals through a research-based theoretical framework. Concomitantly, theories and research by Canale, Swain, Streven, Shuy, Cummins, Krashen, and DiPietro are interwoven to present a theoretical framework. This framework has been empirically tested as a teacher training device for the past 18 months and is now entering its observation stage at the classroom level. This framework is shared with you, the teacher trainer, in hopes that its use will not only lead to its adaptation and refinement but to the acceptance of the idea of the necessity of a psychoeducational framework for bilingual education.

Design for Packet I

PACKET I AND ADDITIONAL READINGS

This packet contains state-of-the-art information on theories and research concerning bilingual education, second language acquisition, and communicative competence. A theoretical framework for integrating these theories is also presented. The packet is designed to stand on its own, without having to resort to outside readings for presentations, workshops, or seminars. References include outside readings and resources that can easily be converted into extra assignments.

LEVELS OF DIFFICULTY

This packet is written for undergraduate, graduate, and teacher in-service programs. Additionally, the authors recommend that the workshops

or the presentations of the theories be done for school administrators, board members, and parents.

RELATIONSHIP TO PACKETS II and III

Packets I, II, and III are cyclical in nature and reinforce and add to one another. For example, the theories presented in Packet I are converted into classroom practices and methodology in Packet II. These same theories, methods, and techniques in turn generate specific assessment techniques that are explained in Packet III. The theory presented in Packet I is elaborated in relation to the topics in the other two packets.

A NOTE ON JIM CUMMINS' PAPER (PART 3)

A definite highlight of Series B--Language Proficiency Acquisition, Assessment, and Communicative Behavior--is that specific writing contributions were made by the renowned sociolinguists Jim Cummins and Robert J. DiPietro. Packet I, Communicative Competence in Bilingual Education--Theory and Research, contains in Part 3 an article by Jim Cummins: "A Theoretical Rationale for Bilingual Education." This article is an elaboration of a paper that was presented at the Inter-America Symposium on Language Proficiency Assessment in Airlie, Virginia, in March, 1981. It is also a condensed version of his paper written for the California State Department Framework for Bilingual Education, which will be published later this year. As the California publication implies, Jim Cummins' theoretical framework will become the framework for bilingual programs in California.

Prerequisites

There are no prerequisites for this packet. The authors recommend,

however, that it be used as part one of the total series on communicative competence. By beginning with Packet I, Theory and Research, and continuing with Packet II, Methods and Techniques, and Packet III Assessing Communicative Competence, the trainee will have a better basis for discussion and application of these theories.

Methodological Procedures

The content of this packet can be imparted through the process of lecture, discussion, or more interesting to adult learners, through a variety of workshop modes. (See Management System manual for details.)

The activities are based on the principles of Androgogy (adult learning styles) and are easily adaptable to in-service training workshops or classroom seminars.

Since theory and lecture have doldrum connotations, the authors determined that a more active approach to "internalizing" these theoretical concepts would be more appealing. Furthermore, especially through in-service workshops, these group processes can go from "internalization" to direct "application" of knowledge to tasks such as planning, improving, or designing a new syllabus, program, or evaluation paradigm.

The number of sessions or presentations needs to be determined by (1) level, (2) interest, (3) format (i.e., course of workshop), and (4) background of trainees. For an undergraduate and graduate course the material could be covered in a minimum of nine hours. Workshops can be divided into topics based on Parts 1, 2, 3, and 4. It would depend on the audience as to the amount of information they would need. This information should also be applied to the trainees' situation to ensure transfer of training. Thus, Activity III can be prolonged into several long-range in-service follow-up sessions.

Included in the packet is a pre/posttest that can be used as a needs assessment instrument, an evaluation instrument, or as discussion questions--warm-up exercise.

Absolute answers are not given for the activities, since the responses are contingent on the content that was covered. However, guidelines, as well as specific pages, paragraphs, or articles, are given where they can be found. It is hoped that the content will be tailored to meet the audience's need and that the trainer/professor add to and complement this packet as needed.

Materials, Equipment, Setting

Charts and figures included in this packet can be made into overhead transparencies for variety of presentation. Portions of the narrative can also be duplicated as handouts.

Setting should be informal, lending itself to large and small group activities. Structuring of theory into mini presentations is recommended.

Syllabus

SESSION	LEVEL	ACTIVITY
1	College course	Pre/posttest and/or review of objectives Lecture: Parts 1 and 2 Assignment: Read Parts 1, 2, 3.
	Seminar or Workshop	Do Activity I Assignment: Distribute Packet I
2	College course	Lecture/Discussion: Part 3 Assignment: Read Part 4
	Seminar or Workshop	Do Activity II
3	College course	Lecture/Discussion: Applying the Theoretical Framework--Implications for Teachers (Activities II or III Optional)
	Seminar or Workshop	Do Activity III (See Methodological Procedures section and Management System manual for options.)

Pretest

1. In the next twenty years the Spanish LEP population will:

    a. decrease 25%.
    b. concentrate in Colorado, Arizona, and New Mexico.
    c. be the same as the Asian LEP population.
    d. be 70% of all LEPs in the year 2000.
    e. none of the above.

2. The Title VII 1968 Regulations for Bilingual Education:

    a. were written to "provide services to the limited English-proficient students."
    b. demanded coverage to include speaking, understanding, reading, and writing.
    c. were for "children who are educationally disadvantaged."
    d. were to create an enrichment program for the limited English-speaking students.
    e. only a and b of the above.

3. Research evidence for the effectiveness of bilingual education:

    a. was the foundation for the 1968 regulations.
    b. is nonexistent.
    c. will begin in 1982.
    d. is quickly mounting.
    e. none of the above.
    f. only b and c are true.

4. Research has indicated that:

    a. teachers can be trained to observe children's language behavior and to make good estimates of the children's ability to perform in school.
    b. the most effective program for developing English skills is one with 75% English instruction and 25% Spanish instruction.
    c. the most effective program for developing English skills is one with 50% English instruction and 50% Spanish instruction.
    d. only a and b are true.
    e. none of the above.
    f. only a and c are true.

5. English-as-a-second-language methods, techniques, and tests in the U.S. are based on:

    a. audiolingual approaches.
    b. Chomsky and Bloomfield theories.
    c. mastery of language structure.
    d. emphasis of form rather than function.
    e. all of the above.
    f. none of the above.

6. Communicative competence means:

   a. emphasis is on form rather than function.
   b. grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic abilities.
   c. focusing on particular settings, functions, and notions.
   d. focusing only on phonology, morphology, lexical items, and syntax.
   e. only a and d of the above.
   f. only b and c of the above.

7. Current second language acquisition theory indicates that:

   a. there are two separate processes for developing a second language: acquisition and learning.
   b. grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable order.
   c. learning of grammar is much more important and develops fluency.
   d. students acquire structure by focusing on grammatical forms and analyzing them.
   e. by simply providing comprehensible input, spoken fluency will not emerge.
   f. students should begin to talk from the first day of class.

8. Bilingual education programs:

   a. confuse children and reduce their chances of academic success.
   b. such as the Rock Point Navajo study prove that early reading instruction in English is best for achievement.
   c. such as the Edmonton Ukrainian-English found that students who were less fluent in Ukrainian were able to detect ambiguities in English sentence structures better than the fluent Ukrainian group.
   d. should not encourage minority parents to switch to English in the home.
   e. all of the above.
   f. none of the above.

9. A theoretical framework for bilingual education should consider:

   a. that academic skills are interdependent in L1 and L2.
   b. that the more context-reduced and cognitively demanding the language task, the more it will be related to achievement.
   c. the developmental aspects of communicative proficiency in terms of the degree of active cognitive involvement in the task or activity.
   d. only b and c are true.
   e. all of the above.
   f. none of the above.

10. Teacher training programs for bilingual education:

   a. are too heavy on theory and too light on application.
   b. are for the most part conducted in English.

c. utilize professional literature and other materials mostly in English.
d. focus their language training component on communicative approach.
e. all of the above.
f. a, b, and c only.

Answer Key to Pretest

1. e
2. c
3. d
4. f
5. e
6. f
7. a
8. d
9. e
10. f

Glossary

BICS: Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills

CALP: Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency

CESS: Children's English and Services Study

Form: The aspect of language that deals with phonology, morphology, vocabulary; the smallest units of analysis.

Function: The aspect of language that deals with meaning, the analysis of discourse.

(a) function: what people do as means of language; i.e., to assert, question, persuade, apologize, etc.

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LEP: Limited English Proficiency

NACBE: National Advisory Council for Bilingual Education

NELB: Non-English Language Background

Notion: By performing "functions," people express, refer to a "notion"; e.g., they will apologize for <u>being late</u>.

OBBE: Office of Bilingual-Bicultural Education, California State Department of Education

Objectives

PART I

Upon the completion of Part 1, the student will be able to:

1. Cite the demographic projections for LEP students by age, language, and major concentration by state through citing the CESS and NELD-LEP studies,

2. Discuss the limitations in the foundations of bilingual education by giving examples and implications of the language text of the Title VII Regulations.

3. Discuss past and present research efforts in bilingual education by citing Troike, Legarreta, and SWRL.

PART 2

Upon the completion of Part 2, the student will be able to:

4. Discuss past and present trends in language acquisition theories by describing the change in emphasis from form to function.

5. Discuss the difference between from and function by explaining the Shuy iceberg representation.

6. Distinguish between three approaches to language acquisition--grammatical, communicative, and situational.

7. Present a communicative competence framework by using the Hymes, Shuy, or Canale and Swain representation.

8. Explain the difference between "acquisition" and "learning" and its implications by citing Krashen.

9. List at least six principles or premises of second language teaching by citing Strevens.

10. Discuss the five hypotheses for second language acquisition by citing Krashen.

PART 3

By citing Cummins' work, the student/trainee will be able to discuss:

11. At least three misconceptions or myths about bilingual education.

12. At least five positive research findings of bilingual programs.

13. The linguistic interdependence between L1 and L2.

14. Bilingual proficiency.

15. Separate underlying proficiency.

16. Common underlying proficiency.

17. Implications for bilingualism in the home.

18. The quick-exit fallacy of transitional programs.

19. A theoretical framework for bilingual education.

PART 4

Upon the completion of Part 4, the student will be able to discuss the implications by the proposed framework for teacher training, syllabus design, and materials development.

Part 1--Bilingual Education: State of the Art

DEMOGRAPHIC CONTEXT OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION

In 1978 the Children's English and Services Study (CESS) was launched by the National Institute of Education to obtain counts of limited English-proficient (LEP) children in the nation and in three states: California, Texas, and New York. Subsequently, the Non-English Language Background and Limited English Proficiency Study (NELB-LEP Projection Study) was initiated to provide in-depth data on LEP students in terms of age, language, and state. The results of these studies (CESS and NELB-LEB) provided the following current data and current trends.

LEP Results by Language

- Spanish, Asian, and non-Spanish/non-Asian LEP population all experienced slight declines during the decade of the 1980s but are projected to rise strongly or return to the original level until the year 2000.
- Between 1976 and 2000 there is an increase of 880,000 among 5- to 14-year-old LEP students. Of this number, 840,000 (95.5%) are accounted for by the Spanish LEP population.
- Spanish LEPs, ages 5 to 14 years, move from 1.8 million (71% of all LEPs) in 1976 to 2.6 million (77% of all LEPs) in 2000.
- Asian LEPs, ages 5 to 14 years, include approximately .13 million in both 1976 and 2000.
- Non-Spanish/non-Asian LEPs, ages 5 to 14 years, amount to .6 million in 1976 and the same number in 2000.
- LEP to NELB ratios (LEP rates) vary considerably by language, with the highest LEP rates (.75) found among Spanish and Vietnamese populations, the usual range being .41 to .53.

LEP Results by Age

- There is a slightly greater overall increase in 5- to 9-year-old LEPs than in 10- to 14-year-old LEPs between 1976 and 2000.

- The younger age group moves from 1.3 million to 1.8 million, and the older age group increases from 1.3 million to 1.6 million.

LEP Results by Major States

- California and Texas show overall gains in number of LEPs between 1976 and 2000 (California, .6 million to .9 million; Texas, .5 million to .9 million), while New York stays the same at .5 million in 1976 and 2000.

- LEPs are more highly concentrated than NELBs in these three states, with the percentage of the national LEP population clustered in these states increasing from 63% to 67% between 1976 and 2000, as compared to the percentage of the national NELB population in these states rising from 45% to 48% in that period.

LEP Results by Language and Age

- The younger Spanish LEP population grows faster in numbers than the older Spanish LEP population between 1976 and 2000 (ages 5 to 9, .9 million to 1.4 million; ages 10 to 14, .9 million to 1.2 million).

- There is a pronounced increase in the number of younger Asian LEPs between 1976 and 2000 (70,000 to 81,000) and slight drop in older Asian LEPs (56,000 to 54,000).

- There is little change in the number of non-Spanish/non-Asian LEPs in both age groups between 1976 and 2000 (.3 million in each group in 1976 and 2000).

LEP Results by Language and State

- The Spanish LEPs are concentrated largely in the three key states of California, Texas, and New York.

- Of the total growth of 5- to 14-year-old LEPs projected to reach 880,000 between 1976 and 2000, a full 700,000 (79.5%) come from just the Spanish-speaking LEPs in these three states.

These results have serious implications for bilingual education planning. First, it is clear that Spanish LEPs will become an increasingly important factor in education in the next twenty years. Second, the geographic concentration of NELBs and LEPs will be within three states: California, Texas, and New York. Third, although NELB groups will tem-

porarily decrease during the 1980s, they will all increase again by the end of the century. Although a more complete study will be available in 1982 based on the 1980 census, the above data demonstrate a clear need for a national multiple-language education policy (NACBE, 1980-81).

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION

The concept of bilingual education was supported by Congress with the passage of the Bilingual Education Act of 1968. Much of the impetus for the development of bilingual education derived from (1) the failure of L2 literacy skills in minority language children and (2) the "linguistic mismatch" between the language of the home and the language of the school leading to retardation in academic skills (UNESCO, 1953; U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1975). The focus of the UNESCO statement, "It is axiomatic that the best medium for teaching a child is his mother tongue," gave rise to bilingual education.

Unfortunately, the language that created the program and its subsequent amendments also placed the program at a disadvantage. For example, the 1968 enactment provides services to ". . . children who are educationally disadvantaged because of their inability to speak English . . ." (Senate report 90-726, p.49). The term disadvantaged gave rise to a deficit theory of bilingual education. It became a remedial and compensatory program rather than an enrichment program.

In 1974 the amendments still concentrated on the definition "children of limited English-speaking ability." But by 1978, the law expanded the act's coverage to include speaking, understanding, reading, and writing into a new term: "children of limited English proficiency."

THE RECORD TO DATE

How, then, has bilingual education served Hispanic children under

the impact of federal legislative, judicial, and administrative action? Alan Pifer, in his president's annual statement of the Carnegie Corporation finds that:

> . . . bilingual programs were launched hastily, with little empirical evidence of "what works," without adequate diagnosis of children's varying linguistic needs, without properly trained teachers or appropriate curricular materials, and often without the strong support of school administrators. (Pifer, 1979)

However, Pifer continues to say that much of the fault can be laid on the laxity in federal planning and supervision.

As R. Troike pointed out in his "Research Evidence for the Effectiveness of Bilingual Education," before 1978 less than .25 percent of Title VII funds were spent for basic and operational research. The first Bilingual Education Act included no funds for research at all. The emphasis was on immediate action. Troike's plea was heard, and $2 million were given for research in 1979; $4.6 million were spent in 1980; and $6 million were appropriated in 1981. Additionally, evidence is quickly mounting that, given favorable circumstances, bilingual education programs can be successful. Dr. Cummins' paper in Part 3 will elaborate on these findings.

ADDITIONAL RESEARCH NEEDED

The National Advisory Council for Bilingual Education identifies in its 1980-81 report two areas of inquiry needed to determine the effectiveness of program implementation. These are:

(1) Studies to identify the type, level, and quality of implementation of programs presently offered to LEP children where the focus should be on the components of instruction rather than typologies such as maintenance or transitional programs. These components should include program entry and exit criteria, assessment approaches, language of instruction, duration of program, quality of staffing, instructional strategies, etc.

(2) Studies to identify the relationship between instructional processes and student outcomes in order to determine what types of instructional activities are successful for which types of students (e.g., different language groups, different levels of cognitive development, different settings).

Studies along these lines are beginning to be conducted in several parts of the country. A study carried out by Legarreta (1977) in California compared the effectiveness of three approaches to bilingual education with the effectiveness of two English-only approaches in developing English communicative competence of Spanish-background children at the kindergarten level. The three approaches were found to be significantly superior to the two English-only approaches in developing English skills. The most effective program of the three bilingual approaches was one with balanced bilingual usage (50 percent English, 50 percent Spanish).

The Southwest Education Development Laboratory in Texas is in the process of conducting a seven-year study which will track the reading progress of approximately 400 children from kindergarten through grade four. Among the learner characteristics they are viewing are cognitive style, cognitive development, degree of bilingualism, and level of linguistic awareness. Their second year of the study has yielded the following implications for the classroom teacher:

1. Look at these children as individuals.

2. Learn all you can about each child's ability in his/her two languages as well as his/her patterns of language use.

3. Recognize that these children generally have a language that serves them well for interpersonal communication. It is rich in vocabulary and syntactic structures and in the functions of language needed in social interaction.

4. Notice whether or not the child is experienced in the form of language needed for the classroom. It may well be that a greater emphasis should be placed on school-related language in the materials and instruction specifically designated for oral language development.

5. Keep in mind that oral language test scores of young children may not provide a reliable picture of the child's language resources. Teachers can be trained to observe children's language behavior and to make reasonably good estimates of the children's ability to perform in the school setting.

What these and other studies concerning bilingual education imply is that basic theoretical framework is necessary before many of the above issues can be addressed.

Part 2--A Theoretical Framework for Communicative Approaches to Second Language Acquisition

It is often said that language teaching in the past few decades has shifted the emphasis away from "mastery of language use to mastery of language structure" (Brumfit, 1979). This emphasis on teaching structure is manifested not only in the audiolingual methodologies but also in syllabus and school district curriculum development.

The language teacher's emphasis on mastery of structure has its foundations on the emphasis within linguistics. American linguists, based on Bloomfield (1933) and Chomsky (1957) analyses, have restricted themselves to the study of form. In turn, this emphasis on form has only provided alternative strategies for teaching grammar. Tests have been developed based on these same foundations, and success or failure in language learning is measured by the student's ability to manipulate the structures of language.

This heavy emphasis on <u>form</u> has brought about a reaction against the view of language as a set of structures. It is a reaction toward a view of language as <u>communication</u>, a view in which <u>meaning</u> and <u>function</u> play a central part (Brumfit & Johnson, 1979). This latter view became known as the functional approach to communicative competence.

COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE THEORIES

In 1972, Del Hymes saw communicative competence as the interaction of grammatical (what is formally possible), psycholinguistic (what is feasible in terms of human information processing), sociocultural (what is the social meaning or value of a given utterance), and probabilistic (what actually occurs) systems of competence.

Roger Shuy describes communicative competence in terms of the following flow-chart (Figure 1):

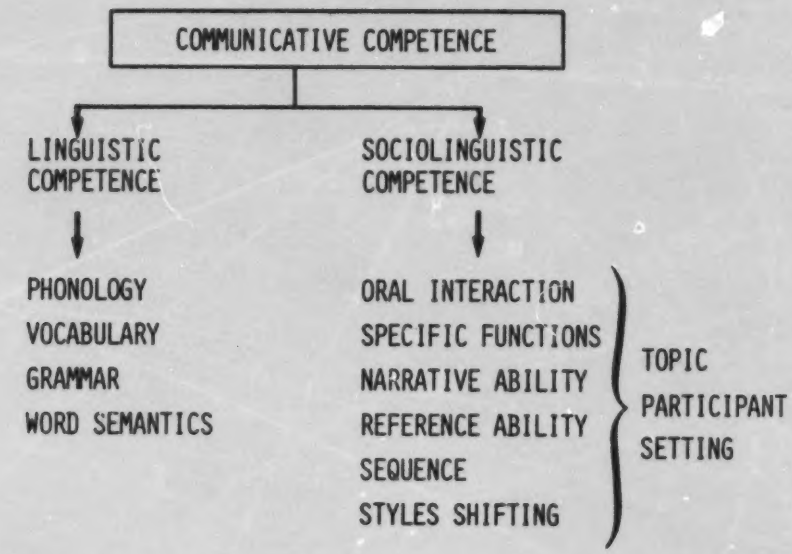

FIGURE 1

(From R. W. Shuy. "Communicative Competence." A presentation at Multidistrict Teacher Trainers Institute, Redlands, CA, 1980, and Coachella, CA, 1981. By permission.)

Dr. Shuy also represents the form and function distinctions through an iceberg metaphor (Figure 2). The surface elements are those that are taught in ESL classes to the same student, year after year, as he/she moves from one grade to another. The elements under the water--those that are difficult to see, to measure, and to teach through audiolingual and grammar-based methods--are the elements that are necessary for a student to achieve academically.

Canale and Swain (1980) make the "form" and "function" distinction through three approaches:

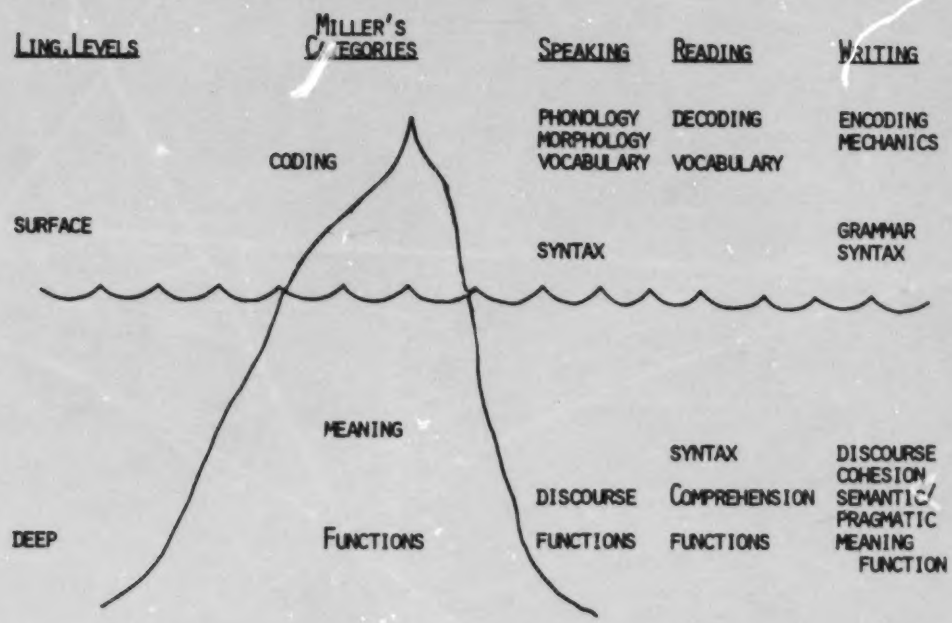

FIGURE 2

A DEEP TO SURFACE REPRESENTATION OF THE LANGUAGE CONTEXT ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE

(From R. W. Shuy. "Assessing Oral Language Abilities in Children." In L. Feagans and D. C. Farran, [Eds.], The Language of Children Reared in Poverty, Figure 9.1, p. 185. Copyright 1982 by Academic Press, New York. By permission.)

1. Grammatical approach--one that is based on linguistic or grammatical forms (i.e., phonological, morphological, syntactic patterns, lexical items).

2. Communicative or functional/notional approach--based on communicative functions (i.e., apologizing, describing, inviting, promising).

3. Situational approach--focusing on particular setting or situations (i.e., situational dialogues).

According to Canale and Swain, an integrative theory of communicative competence may be regarded as one in which there is a synthesis of knowledge of basic grammatical principles, knowledge of how language is used

in social contexts to perform communicative functions, and knowledge of how utterances and communicative functions can be combined according to the principles of discourse. These three components can be represented through a flow-chart similar to Shuy's (Figure 3).

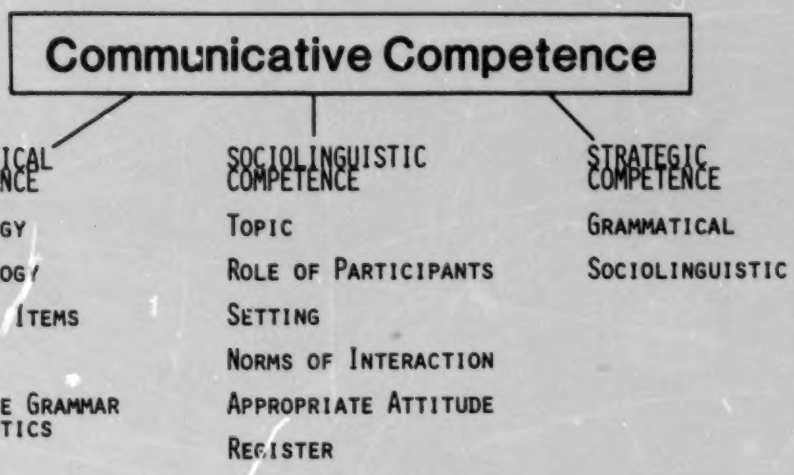

FIGURE 3

The proponents of this framework also argue that the primary goal of a communicative approach must be to facilitate the integration of these types of knowledge. That is, teachers should not emphasize one component over another but rather facilitate the student's development of grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence. Their concept of integration also includes focusing on speaking, listening, reading, and writing rather than a subset of these skills. Other principles that the authors caution teachers to adhere to are:

1. The second language learner must have the opportunity to take part in meaningful communicative interaction in realistic situations. This is significant not only to classroom activities but to testing as well.

2. Optimal use must be made of those aspects of communicative competence that the learner has developed through acquisition and use of the native language and that are common to those communication skills required in the second language.

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION THEORY

Salient features of second language learning, as it has been approached in Europe for some five to eight years (and now coming to light in the United States), follow these trends:

> First, it is moving away from teacher-centered, creativity-engendering, custom-designed approaches.
>
> Second, teachers are abandoning overly simplistic ideas about teaching and learning, including the fallacy of a unique preferred methodology, in favor of a more difficult and complex analysis of individual learner needs.
>
> Third, second language learning now emerges as a process and a task that requires knowledge of the mind of the learner, the nature of language, and the skill of the teacher (Strevens, 1977).

One popular feature of this current theoretical approach is the distinction Strevens makes between the role of the student and the role of the teacher. The term acquisition means learning a language without the benefit of a teacher, and the term learning means learning with a teacher. This language learning/teaching process is what current methodologies attempt to deal with. The trend is toward activities and language that are student generated (acquisition) rather than teacher directed, planned, and imposed (learning). Or stated in other terms, "learning" happens through focus on grammar, "acquisition" through a focus on function.

Peter Strevens (1977), describing the current British premises, included the following:

- The teacher has a function in the total intellectual and moral development of the learner, not just his language.
- English is a part of the total curriculum.

— The choice of content in the syllabus, its arrangement, its principals of grading are carried out with more flexibility. A prior selection of language items to be taught is generally arrived at first, then this is integrated with an inventory of topics, roles, contexts, and situations.

— That which is selected for teaching is expected to be supplemented by whatever emerges from the topics, roles, contexts, or situations.

— A distinction between form and function is made so that it is not just the meaning of a sentence that is taught, but its value as an utterance.

— The student is at first spoonfed by either the teacher or the materials, but later both controlled and "natural" materials are presented. The control at this later stage concentrates on areas of deficiency in the learner's knowledge.

— "Don't just satisfy the learner, stretch him!"

— Grammar is taught explicitly only if it is helpful to do so.

— The teacher disposes of a wide array of teaching techniques including full-class techniques, group techniques, individual techniques.

— The good teacher brings to the language learning/language teaching situation the establishment of confidence, morale, interest, and motivation.

In the United States, Krashen (1979, 1981) has recently capsuled these theoretical premises into five hypotheses emphasizing a more natural approach.

1. The acquisition-learning hypothesis states that there are two separate processes for the development of ability in a second language: (1) via acquisition which is similar to the way children develop their L1 competence and (2) via "learning" which is an explicit presentation of rules and grammar and emphasizes error correction.

2. The natural order hypothesis states that acquirers acquire (not learn) grammatical structures in a predictable order.

3. The monitor hypothesis states the relationship between acquisition and learning. Acquisition is far more important and develops fluency, but conscious learning can be used as an editor, a monitor.

4. The input hypothesis says (1) that the student acquires by understanding language that contains input containing structures that are "a bit beyond" the acquirer's current level; (2) that the student acquires structure by focusing on meaning for understanding messages and not focusing on the form of the input or analyzing it; (3) that the best way to teach speaking is simply by providing "comprehensible input"; that is, fluency in speaking emerges naturally without being taught directly. Also, there should be a silent period before the student is ready to talk. Speech will come when the acquirer is ready; (4) that the best input should not be grammatically sequenced, but provide situations involving genuine communication with structures being constantly provided and automatically reviewed.

5. The affective filter hypothesis deals with the effect of personality, motivation, anxiety, self-confidence, etc., of a student. Acquirers in a less than optimal affective state will have a filter, or mental block, preventing them from utilizing input fully for further language acquisition.

THE NEED TO FOCUS ON STRATEGIC COMPETENCE

According to Canale and Swain (1980), with the exception of Savignon (1972) and Stern (1978), no communicative competence theorists (prior to 1980) had devoted any detailed attention to communication strategies that speakers employ to handle breakdowns in communication: for example, how to deal with false starts, hesitations, and other performance factors, how to avoid grammatical forms that have not been mastered fully, how to address strangers when unsure of their social status--in short, how to cope in an authentic communicative situation and how to keep the communicative channel open.

Fortunately, Jim Cummins (see Part 3 of this packet) provides a framework for analyzing the strategic component; but more importantly, DiPietro has developed a model that focuses on the strategies and integrates the grammatical and sociolinguistic dimensions as well. (See Part 3 of Packet II -- Methods and Techniques for Communicative Competence in Bilingual Education.

SUMMARY

A theoretical framework for communicative competence should:

1. Make a distinction between form and function, not for the purpose of dichotomizing the construct but for purposes of teacher training and materials development.
2. Take into consideration grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic development.
3. Contain basic principles of second language acquisition theory.
4. Consider the students' level of primary language.

The elements of numbers 1, 2, and 3 have already been presented. The next step is to identify the relationship between first and second language developmental processes. Dr. Cummins analyzes this relationship and presents a framework that merges communicative competence with bilingual education (see Part 3).

Part 3--A Theoretical Rationale for Bilingual Education*

Parents of minority language children often try to use English in communicating with their children in the home because they feel that the use of their mother tongue (L1) may confuse children and reduce their chances of academic success. This fear of bilingualism is sometimes reinforced by teachers who advise parents to use English as much as possible in the home in order to help their children to become fully proficient in that language. Similarly, some teachers and administrators have expressed misgivings about bilingual education programs on the grounds that if minority children are deficient in English, then they need instruction in English, not in their L1. These teachers often tend to see L1 instruction as undermining their efforts to teach children English.

These beliefs about the negative effects of using L1 in the home and school are based on misconceptions regarding the central role of language in children's educational development and the specific ways in which bilingualism affects this development. Recent research findings from many parts of the world show clearly that maintaining and developing L1 through using it as a medium of instruction for a major part of the school day has no negative effects on the development of L2 and in many cases has very positive effects both on the development of L2 and on other academic skills (see Cummins, 1979a, 1980). Before considering some of this research, it is worth examining how the misconceptions about bilingualism and mother tongue maintenance arose.

* Written by Jim Cummins, The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

THE MYTH OF BILINGUAL HANDICAPS

The image of bilingualism as a negative force in children's development was especially common in the early part of this century when most teachers of minority language children saw bilingualism almost as a disease which not only caused confusion in children's thinking but also prevented children from becoming "good Americans." Therefore, they felt that a precondition for teaching children the school language was the eradication of their bilingualism. Thus, children were often punished for speaking their L1 in school and were made to feel ashamed of their own language and cultural background. It is not surprising that research studies conducted during this period (see Darcy, 1953 for a review) often found that bilingual children did poorly at school and that many experienced emotional conflicts. Children were made to feel that it was necessary to reject the home culture in order to belong to the majority culture and often ended up unable to identify fully with either cultural group.

However, rather than considering the possibility that the school's treatment of minority children might be a cause of their lack of success, teachers, researchers, and administrators seized on the obvious scapegoat and blamed children's failure on their bilingualism. The research findings were interpreted to mean that there is only so much space or capacity available in our brains for language; therefore, if we divide that space between two languages, neither language will develop properly, and intellectual confusion will result. Recent research findings and evaluations of programs which have promoted children's L1 in the school show clearly that the poor academic performance of many bilingual children was caused, not by their bilingualism, but by the attempts of the school to eradicate their bilingualism. These findings show clearly that

bilingualism can be a positive force in minority children's development when their L1 is promoted by the school.

MOTHER TONGUE DEVELOPMENT AS A POSITIVE FORCE: RESEARCH FINDINGS

The beneficial effects of bilingualism and L1 development on minority children's educational progress can be illustrated by seven carefully controlled recent evaluations of bilingual programs.

1. Rock Point Navajo Study. Before the bilingual program was started in 1971, children were two years behind U.S. norms in English reading by the end of sixth grade despite intensive teaching of English as a second language. The bilingual program used Navajo as the major initial medium of instruction and continued its use throughout elementary school. English reading instruction was delayed until Navajo reading skills were well established (mid-grade 2). By the end of the sixth grade, children in the bilingual program were performing slightly above U.S. grade norms in English reading despite considerably less exposure to English than previously (Rosier & Farella, 1976).

2. Legarreta Study: Direct ESL - Bilingual Comparison. A study carried out by Dorothy Legarreta (1979) in California compared the effectiveness of three types of bilingual treatments with two types of English-only treatments in facilitating the development of English communicative competence in Spanish-background kindergarten children. The three bilingual treatments were found to be significantly superior to the two English-only treatments in developing English language skills. The most effective program was one with balanced bilingual usage (50 percent English, 50 percent Spanish).

3. Nestor School Bilingual Program Evaluation. The Nestor program in San Diego involved both Spanish- and English-background students and used a team teaching approach in which instruction in the early grades was primarily through the child's L1. Gradually the proportion of instruction in L2 was increased until, by fourth grade, approximately 50 percent of instruction was through each language. The evaluation of the program (Evaluation Associates, 1978) showed that Spanish-background students gained an additional .36 of a year's growth in English reading for each successive year they spent in the bilingual program. Spanish-background students who had spent five years or more in the bilingual program at the elementary level tended to perform slightly better in English reading than the school average at the junior high school level despite the fact that at least 37 percent of the comparison group were originally native English speakers. In mathematics the sixth grade Spanish-background children in the Nestor program were over a year ahead of the Spanish speakers in the comparison district and only one month behind grade level. The English-background participants in the Nestor bilingual program performed at a higher level than the comparison group on a large majority of measures; however, this may be due to a selection bias.

4. Santa Fe Bilingual Program. In the schools involved in this program, Spanish was used for between 30 and 50 percent of the school day throughout elementary school. It was found that children enrolled in the bilingual program consistently performed significantly better than the control group (in an English-only program) in both reading and mathematics. Children enrolled continuously in the bilingual program from second grade caught up with U.S. norms in English reading by fifth grade and stayed close in sixth grade. In math this group surpassed the national averages

in fourth grade and maintained an equal or superior status through sixth grade (Leyba, 1978).

Ten other well-controlled evaluations in the U.S. context showing similar patterns of findings are reviewed by Troike (1978). The same pattern emerges from evaluations of bilingual programs in other countries. Consider just three examples.

1. Sodertalje Program for Finnish Immigrant Children in Sweden. The findings of this evaluation are very similar to those of the Rock Point Navajo evaluation. Finnish children in Swedish-only programs were found to perform worse in Finnish than 90 percent of equivalent socioeconomic status Finnish children in Finland and worse in Swedish than about 90 percent of Swedish children (Skutnabb-Kangas & Toukomaa, 1976). The Sodertalje program, however, used Finnish as the major initial language of instruction and continued its use throughout elementary school. Swedish became the major language of instruction from third grade. By sixth grade, children's performance in this program in both Finnish and Swedish was almost at the same level as that of Swedish-speaking children in Finland, which was a considerable improvement in both languages compared to their performance in Swedish-only programs (Hanson, 1979).

2. Manitoba Francophone Study. A large-scale study carried out by Hébert et al. (1975) among third, sixth, and ninth grades, in which minority francophone students in Manitoba were receiving varying amounts of instruction through the medium of French, found that the amount of French-medium instruction showed no relationship to children's achievement in English. In other words, francophone students receiving 80 percent instruction in French and 20 percent instruction in English did just as well in English as students receiving 80 percent instruction in English and 20

percent in French. However, the amount of instruction in French was positively related to achievement in French. In other words, students' French benefitted at no cost to their progress in English.

3. Edmonton Ukrainian-English Bilingual Program. This program has existed in eight Edmonton elementary schools since 1972 and is financially supported by the Alberta government. In 1978-79 there were 697 students enrolled between kindergarten and fifth grades. Ukrainian is used as a medium of instruction for 50 percent of the regular school day throughout elementary school. Only about 15 percent of the students are fluent in Ukrainian on entry to the program. A study carried out with first and third grade students (Cummins and Mulcahy, 1978) found that students who were relatively fluent in Ukrainian as a result of parents' using it consistently in the home were significantly better able to detect ambiguities in English sentence structure than either equivalent monolingual English-speaking children not in the program or children in the program who came from predominantly English-speaking homes. The evaluations of the program have shown no detrimental effects on the development of children's English or other academic skills. In fact, by the end of fifth grade, children in the program had pulled ahead of the comparison group in English reading comprehension skills (Edmonton Public School Board, 1979).

In summary, the results of research on bilingual education programs show that minority children's L1 proficiency can be promoted in school at no cost to the development of proficiency in the majority language. In addition to the evaluations outlined above, there are many other research studies which suggest that bilingual children who develop their proficiency in both languages experience intellectual and academic advantages over unilingual children (see Cummins, 1979a for a review of these studies.).

How do we reconcile the success of L1-medium programs for minority children with the fact that majority language children fare very well academically in French or Spanish immersion programs (see Cummins, 1979a)? There are many differences between these situations, e.g., prestige of L1, security of children's identity and self-concept, level of support for L1 development in home and environment. Thus, it is not surprising that different forms of educational programs should be appropriate for children with very different background characteristics. The apparent contradiction between findings in minority and majority contexts completely disappears when we stop thinking in terms of "linguistic mismatch" or "home-school language switch." In immersion programs for majority language children, as well as in bilingual programs for minority children, instruction through the minority language has been effective in promoting proficiency in both languages. These findings, which have been replicated in an enormous number of studies, support the following "Interdependence" Hypothesis:

> To the extent that instruction in L_x is effective in promoting proficiency in L_x, transfer of this proficiency to L_y will occur provided there is adequate exposure to L_y (either in school or environment) and adequate motivation to learn L_y.

The findings of bilingual programs which give rise to this hypothesis suggest that we must reexamine the relationship between language proficiency and bilingualism.

LINGUISTIC INTERDEPENDENCE

It is clear that in a monolingual context, with the exception of severely retarded and autistic children, everybody acquires basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) in L1, regardless of IQ or academic aptitude; yet there are large individual differences in the extent to which literacy skills are developed. This distinction is expressed in the "iceberg"

representation of language proficiency (Figure 1), adapted from Roger Shuy (1976). In the diagram, the "visible" language proficiencies of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar, which are manifested in everyday interpersonal communicative situations, are above the surface, but the cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) required to manipulate or reflect upon these surface features outside of immediate interpersonal contexts is below the surface. CALP is defined as those dimensions of language proficiency that are strongly related to literacy skills, whereas BICS refers to cognitively undemanding manifestations of language proficiency in interpersonal situations.

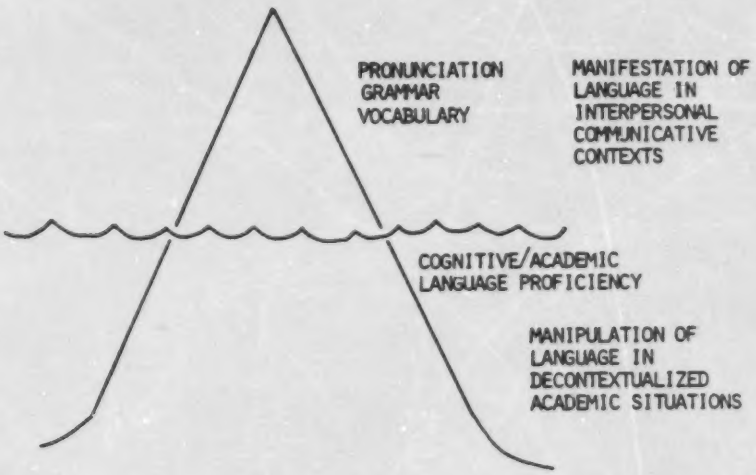

FIGURE 1
THE "ICEBERG" REPRESENTATION OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

Bilingual proficiency can be represented by means of a dual-iceberg in which the surface manifestations of each language are separate but L1 and L2 CALP are interdependent (Figure 2). It is only by postulating a large degree of overlap between L1 and L2 CALP that the research findings from bilingual programs reviewed above can be explained. In other words, instruction

through a minority language in the early grades is not just promoting proficiency in the surface manifestations of that language; it is also promoting the deeper cognitive and academic skills that underlie the development of literacy in both languages of the bilingual. This interdependence between L1 and L2 CALP is why transfer of reading skills occurs so rapidly in bilingual programs (see Genesee, 1979).

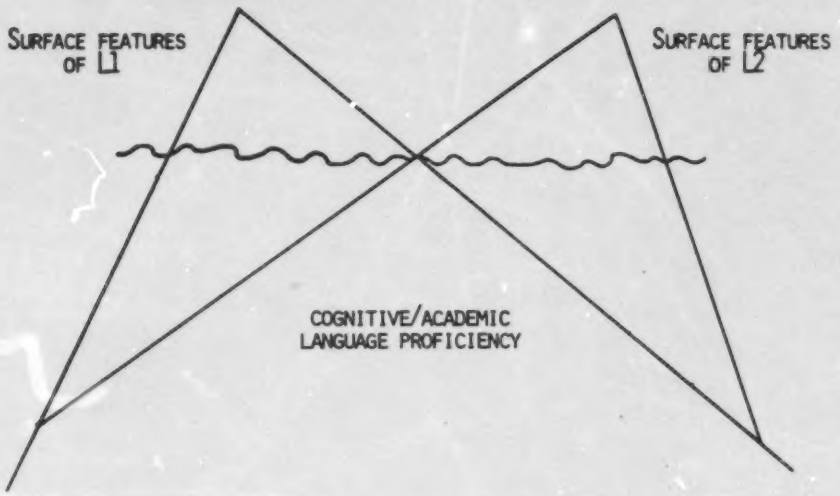

FIGURE 2
THE DUAL-ICEBERG REPRESENTATION OF BILINGUAL PROFICIENCY

In addition to being consistent with the results of bilingual programs for both majority and minority children, the Interdependence Hypothesis illustrated in Figure 2 is supported by (1) the fact that L1 and L2 reading scores typically correlate highly with one another in bilingual programs (see Cummins, 1979b) and (2) the fact that many studies have consistently shown that older learners whose L1 CALP is better developed acquire L2 CALP more rapidly than younger learners (see Cummins, 1980).

The Interdependence Hypothesis can also be illustrated by comparing

two models of bilingual proficiency which make explicit the relationship of instruction in L1 and L2 to the development of L1 and L2 CALP. Those who oppose bilingual education in the United States often argue that if children are deficient in English, then they need instruction in English, not in their L2. This argument implies a Separate Underlying Proficiency (SUP) model, (Figure 3), in which it is assumed that proficiency in L1 is separate from proficiency in L2 and that there is a direct link between exposure to L_x (in home or school) and achievement in L_x. Given the assumptions of the SUP model, it appears counter-intuitive to blow into the L1 balloon in order to inflate the L2 balloon better.

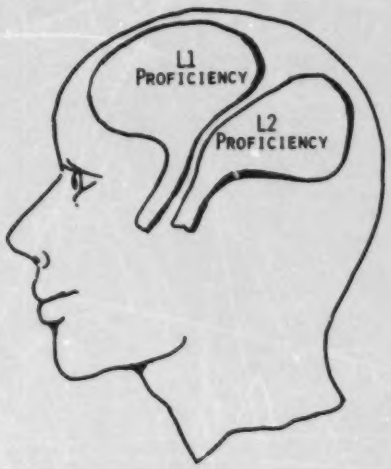

FIGURE 3
THE SEPARATE UNDERLYING PROFICIENCY (SUP)
MODEL OF BILINGUALISM

However, as outlined earlier, there is abundant evidence that for many minority children L2 CALP can be developed much more adequately by means of L1 instruction than by means of L2 instruction. In order to account for

these findings, we must replace the SUP model with a Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) model, (Figure 4), in which experience with either language can promote the development of the proficiency underlying both languages, given adequate motivation and exposure to both, either in school or in wider environment. This conception of bilingual proficiency carries several implications for issues of concern to parents and teachers:

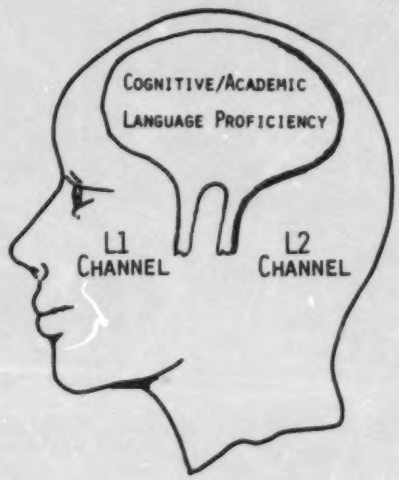

FIGURE 4
THE COMMON UNDERLYING PROFICIENCY (CUP)
MODEL OF BILINGUALISM

1. Bilingualism in the Home. The CUP model applies equally to bilingualism in school. Whether the language of the home is the same as or different from the language of the school matters very little in comparison to the quality of the interaction children experience with adults. In a longitudinal study recently conducted in England, Wells (1979) has shown that children's acquisition of reading skills in school is strongly related to the extent to which parents responded to and expanded upon the child's utterances. The success of many groups of children under home-

school language switch conditions (e.g., French immersion) shows that concepts developed in L1 at home can readily be transferred to L2 in school. Thus, teachers should not encourage minority parents to switch to English in the home. Rather, they should strongly encourage them to promote the development of L1 through such activities as telling or reading stories to their children and generally spending time with them.

2. The "Quick-Exit" Logic of Transitional Programs. Minority students in transitional programs are expected to make so much progress in the cognitive/academic skills underlying English literacy in the early grades that after two or three years they should be at a level where they can compete on an equal footing with their monolingual English-speaking peers who have had all their instruction in English. In other words, a CUP model of bilingual proficiency is implicitly endorsed in the early grades. Yet proponents of a quick-exit policy revert to a SUP model by assuming (contrary to their earlier assumption and the research data) that children's English skills will not develop adequately unless they are mainstreamed as soon as possible to an English-only program. It is ironic that the earlier they want the child mainstreamed, the more effective they must assume the L1 instruction to have been in promoting L2 proficiency.

3. Testing for the Exit Threshold. The reason teachers and others often prematurely assume that minority children have attained sufficient English proficiency to exit to an English-only program is that they focus on the surface manifestations of English proficiency (e.g., accent, fluency, grammar, etc.) and ignore the CALP which underlies English literacy development. Fluency in English BICS is no more a sufficient condition for adequate development of English reading skills in a bilingual child than it is in an English monolingual child. Thus, tests such as the Basic

Inventory of Natural Language (BINL) or the Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM) which attempt to focus mainly on "natural communication" should not be used as criteria for exit from a bilingual program. Although there is absolutely no educational justification for mainstreaming children from a bilingual program, measures of English CALP (e.g., standardized reading tests) or L1 CALP are the criterion measures most likely to indicate when children are capable of surviving academically in an English-only program. The studies reviewed above suggest that (1) a realistic exit threshold of English CALP is unlikely to be reached before fifth or sixth grades and (2) attainment of this exit threshold of English CALP among minority groups that tend to exhibit poor school performance under English-only conditions will be strongly related to the extent to which L1 CALP has been promoted by the bilingual program.

A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK[1]

On the basis of the foregoing analysis of the confusions which exist both in current language proficiency assessment techniques and in procedures for exiting students from bilingual programs, three minimal requirements for a theoretical framework of language proficiency relevant to bilingual education in the United States can be outlined: First, such a framework must incorporate a developmental perspective so that those aspects of language proficiency which are mastered early by native speakers and L2 learners can be distinguished from those that continue to vary across individuals as development progresses; second, the framework must be capable of allowing differences between the linguistic demands of the school and those of interpersonal contexts outside the school to be described; third, the framework must be capable of allowing the developmental relationships between L1 and L2 proficiency to be described.

Current theoretical frameworks of "communicative competence" (e.g., Canale, 1981, Canale and Swain, 1980) do not meet, and were not intended to meet, these requirements. Canale (1981) distinguishes grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competencies but states that their relationship with each other and with world knowledge and academic achievement is an empirical question yet to be addressed. Although this framework is extremely useful for some purposes, its applicability to bilingual education is limited by its static, nondevelopmental nature and by the fact that the relationships between academic performance and the components of communicative competence in L1 and L2 are not considered. For example, both pronunciation and lexical knowledge would be classified under grammatical competence. Yet L1 pronunciation is mastered very early by native speakers, whereas lexical knowledge continues to develop throughout schooling and is strongly related to academic performance.

The framework outlined below is an attempt to conceptualize "language proficiency" in such a way that the developmental interrelationships between academic performance and language proficiency in both L1 and L2 can be considered. It is proposed only in relation to the development of academic skills in bilingual education and is not necessarily appropriate or applicable to other contexts or issues. Essentially, the framework tries to integrate the earlier distinction between basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) into a more general theoretical model. The BICS-CALP distinction was intended to make the point that academic deficits are often created by teachers and psychologists who fail to realize that it takes language minority students considerably longer to attain grade/age-appropriate levels in English academic skills than it does in English face-to-face communicative

skills. However, such a dichotomy oversimplifies the phenomena and risks misinterpretation. It is also difficult to discuss the crucial development issues in terms of the BICS-CALP dichotomy.

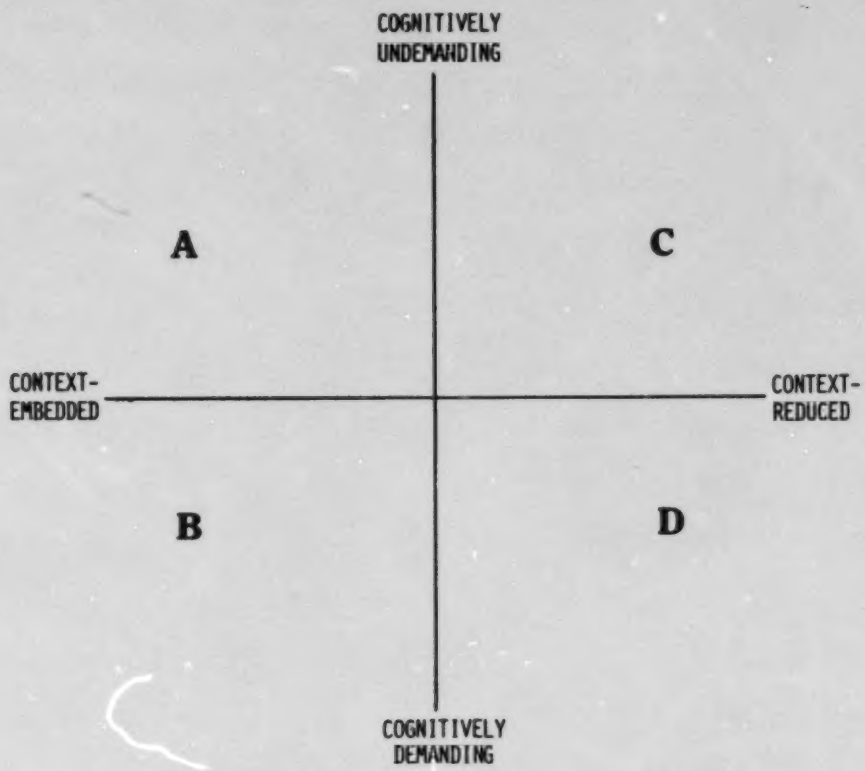

FIGURE 5:

RANGE OF CONTEXTUAL SUPPORT AND DEGREE OF COGNITIVE INVOLVEMENT IN COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES

The framework presented in Figure 5 proposes that in the context of bilingual education in the United States, "language proficiency" can be conceptualized along two continuums. First is a continuum relating to the range of contextual support available for expressing or receiving meaning. The extremes of this continuum are described in terms of "context-embedded" versus "context-reduced" communication. They are distinguished by the fact that in context-embedded communication the participants can actively

negotiate meaning (e.g., by providing feedback that the message has not been understood) and that the language is supported by a wide range of meaningful paralinguistic (gestures, intonation, etc.) and situational cues; context-reduced communication, on the other hand, relies primarily (or at the extreme of the continuum, exclusively) on linguistic cues to meaning and may, in some cases, involve suspending knowledge of the "real world" in order to interpret (or manipulate) the logic of the communication appropriately.[2]

In general, context-embedded communication derives from interpersonal involvement in a shared reality which obviates the need for explicit linguistic elaboration of the message. Context-reduced communication, on the other hand, derives from the fact that this shared reality cannot be assumed, and thus linguistic messages must be elaborated precisely and explicitly so that the risk of misinterpretation is minimized. It is important to emphasize that this is a continuum and not a dichotomy. Thus, examples of communicative behaviors going from left to right along the continuum might be: engaging in a discussion, writing a letter to a close friend, writing (or reading) an academic article. Clearly, context-embedded communication is more typical of the everyday world outside the classroom, whereas many of the linguistic demands of the classroom reflect communication that is closer to the context-reduced end of the continuum.

The vertical continuum is intended to address the developmental aspects of communicative proficiency in terms of the degree of active cognitive involvement in the task or activity. Cognitive involvement can be conceptualized in terms of the amount of information that must be processed simultaneously or in cloze succession by the individual in order to carry out the activity.

How does this continuum incorporate a developmental perspective? If we return to the four components of communicative competence (grammatical,

sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic) discussed by Canale (1981), it is clear that within each one some subskills are mastered more rapidly than others. In other words, some subskills (e.g., pronunciation and syntax within L1 grammatical competence) reach plateau levels at which there are no longer significant differences in mastery between individuals (at least in context-embedded situations). Other subskills continue to develop throughout the school years and beyond, depending upon the individual's communicative needs, in particular cultural and institutional milieux.

Thus, the upper parts of the vertical continuum consist of communicative tasks and activities in which the linguistic tools have become largely automatized (mastered) and thus require little active cognitive involvement for appropriate performance. At the lower end of the continuum are tasks and activities in which the communicative tools have not become automatized and thus require active cognitive involvement. Persuading another individual that your point of view rather than his/hers is correct or writing an essay on a complex theme are examples of such activities. In these situations it is necessary to stretch one's linguistic resources (i.e., grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competencies) to the limit in order to achieve one's communicative goals. Obviously, cognitive involvement, in the sense of amount of information processing, can be just as intense in context-embedded as is context-reduced activities.

As mastery is developed, specific linguistic tasks and skills travel from the bottom towards the top of the vertical continuum. In other words, there tends to be a high level of cognitive involvement in task or activity performance until mastery has been achieved or, alternatively, until a plateau level at less than mastery levels has been reached (e.g., L2 pronunciation in many adult immigrants, "fossilization" of certain grammatical

features among French immersion students, etc.) Thus, learning the phonology and syntax of L1, for example, requires considerable cognitive involvement for the two- and three-year old child, and therefore these tasks would be placed in quadrant B (context-embedded, cognitively demanding). However, as mastery of these skills develops, tasks involving them would move from quadrant B to quadrant A, since performance becomes increasingly automatized and cognitively undemanding. In a second language context the same type of developmental progression occurs. As specific linguistic tasks and skills are mastered in L2, they move up the vertical continuum.

The third requirement for a theoretical framework applicable to bilingual education is that it permit the developmental interrelationships between L1 and L2 proficiency to be conceptualized. There is considerable evidence that L1 and L2 proficiencies are interdependent, i.e., manifestations of a common underlying proficiency (see Cummins, 1981). The evidence reviewed in support of the Interdependence Hypothesis primarily involved academic or "context-reduced" language proficiency because the hypothesis was developed explicitly in relation to the development of bilingual academic skills. However, any language task which is cognitively demanding for a group of individuals is likely to show a moderate degree of interdependence across languages. Also, other factors (e.g., personality, learning style, etc.) in addition to general cognitive skills are likely to contribute to the relationship between L1 and L2, and thus some cognitively undemanding aspects of proficiency (e.g., fluency) may also be related across languages.

As far as context-reduced language proficiency is concerned, the transferability across languages of many of the proficiencies involved in reading (e.g., inferring and predicting meaning based on sampling from the text) and

writing (e.g., planning large chunks of discourse) is obvious. However, even where the task demands are language-specific (e.g., decoding or spelling), a strong relationship may be obtained between skills in L1 and L2 as a result of a more generalized proficiency (and motivation) to handle cognitively demanding context-reduced language tasks. Similarly, on the context-embedded side, many sociolinguistic rules of face-to-face communication are language-specific, but L1 and L2 sociolinguistic skills may be related as a result of a possible generalized sensitivity to sociolinguistic rules of discourse.

In conclusion, the theoretical framework appears to permit the complexity of L1-L2 relationships to be conceptualized while providing a more adequate rationale for the essentially simple point that academic skills in L1 and L2 are interdependent. The framework also provides the basis for a task-analysis of measures of "language proficiency" which would allow the relationships between language measures and academic performance to be predicted for any particular group of individuals. In general, the more context-reduced and cognitively demanding the language task, the more it will be related to achievement. However, although there are intrinsic characteristics of some language tasks which make them more cognitively demanding and context-reduced, these task characteristics must be considered in conjunction with the characteristics of the particular language users (e.g., L1 and/or L2 proficiency, learning style, etc.). For example, skills that have become automatized for native speakers of a language may very well be highly cognitively demanding for learners of that language as an L2. Thus, we would expect different relationships between achievement and certain language tasks in an L1 as compared to an L2 context.[3]

NOTES

[1]This theoretical framework should be viewed within a social context. The language proficiencies described develop as a result of various types of communicative interactions in home and school (see e.g., Wells, 1981). The nature of these interactions is, in turn, determined by broader societal factors (see Cummins, 1981). In order to emphasize the social nature of "language proficiency," this term will be used interchangeably with "communicative proficiency" in describing the framework.

[2]The term "context-reduced" is used rather than "disembedded" (Donaldson, 1978) or "decontextualized" because there is a large variety of contextual cues available to carry out tasks even at the context-reduced end of the continuum. The difference, however, is that these cues are exclusively linguistic in nature.

[3]It should be pointed out that the framework in no way implies that language pedagogy should be context-reduced. There is considerable evidence from both first and second language pedagogy (e.g., Smith, 1978; Swain, 1978) to support the principle that context-reduced language proficiency can be most successfully developed on the basis of initial instruction which maximizes the degree of context-embeddedness. In other words, the more instruction is in tune with the experience and skills the child brings to school (i.e., the more meaningful it is), the more learning will occur. This is one of the reasons why bilingual education is, in general, more successful for language minority students than English-only programs.

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Part 4--Implications for Teacher Trainers

It is characteristic of bilingual education that it must deal with an indefinitely large range of different learners, different teaching/learning conditions, different aims, etc. Yet in another sense bilingual education is concerned with a single individual learner, with his/her unique personal abilities and qualities, with an individual teacher, and with a particular set of surrounding circumstances. A framework for bilingual education must deal both at the macro level with the range of variables that enhance or impinge upon its implementation and at the micro level with the particular features of the learner and teacher.

Adoption of the theoretical frameworks have implications in four areas of language teaching: syllabus (or core curriculum), design, materials development, teaching methodology, and teacher training.

Syllabus Design and Materials Development. Most college syllabi and school district continua (scope and sequence) are currently grammar based. Canale and Swain point out that students who are uninterested in, frustrated by, and perform poorly in a grammatically organized second language program may be encouraged and more motivated in a program with a functional syllabus. Also a more "natural" integration of grammar, sociolinguistic, and strategic elements will occur through a functional syllabus.

There are two alternatives for syllabus designers--one is to throw out existing materials and the other is to review and revise or adapt the framework philosophy into existing syllabi and materials that complement it. A resource for facilitating this development or adjustment can be Van Ek's publication, The Threshold Level, (1976), in which he provides inventories of functions, notions, as well as lexical and structural items.

Teaching Methodology and Teacher Training. The considerable quantity and complexity of this training needs to be subdivided into two components: content and process. Content should consist of theory and research, and process should include application and skill acquisition.

The content should involve several disciplines: linguistics, psychology, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, social sciences, and education with constant up-to-date information reality checks.

The process can be carried out through activities that give the teachers opportunity for actual performance:

1. The observation of specially devised demonstrations of specific techniques and complete lessons.
2. The observation of actual classes.
3. Practice in the preparation of lesson plans for various contingencies.
4. Micro-teaching: the teaching (by the trainee) of specific items or techniques, possibly with the use of closed-circuit television and videotape recordings.
5. Peer-group teaching (i.e., teaching fellow trainees) as a form of exercise.
6. Acting as teacher's assitant in a genuine class.
7. Teaching real classes under supervision.
8. Postmortem criticism and discussion of the trainee's teaching.
9. Longer-term apprenticeship in a school with attachment to an experienced teacher.
10. Posttraining, in-service courses of various kinds.

(Strevens, 1977)

Training is a highly complex activity which requires knowledge, practice, and experience before it can be carried out in a fully professional and effective manner. A flow of the proper training activi-

ties to ensure implementation of the framework and its implications can follow the Joyce and Showers (1981) process as outlined in Figure 1.

TRAINING ACTIVITY AND RESULTS

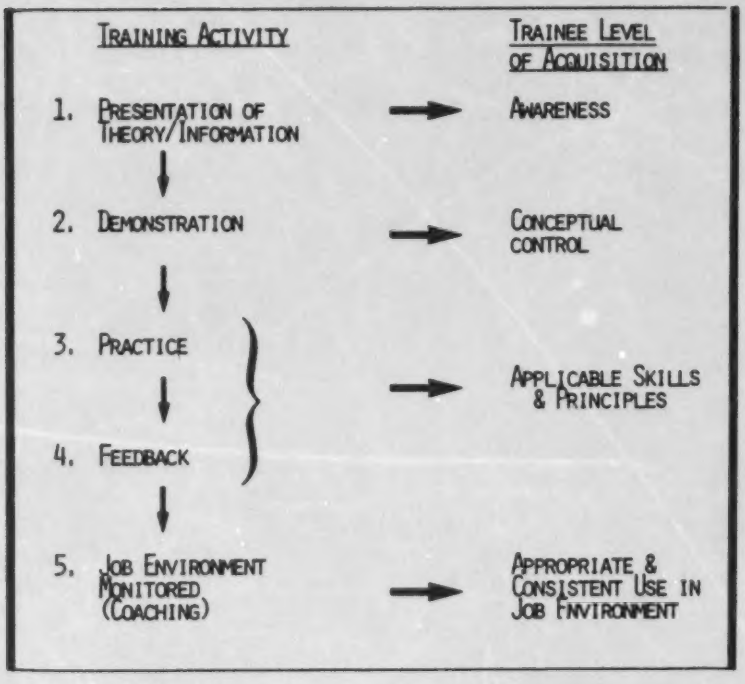

FIGURE 1

As Krashen's research supports, "The best approach (to second language instruction) might be one in which both learning and acquisition are fully utilized in the classroom." In relationship to teacher training, the same principle applies. Unfortunately, teacher training preservice programs are mostly "learning" oriented where not enough acquisition of classroom "know-how" takes place. On the other hand, teacher training in-service programs concentrate on "practical teaching" and leave all "theoretical nonsense" out. Fortunately, bilingual education

teacher training programs are now spearheading successful training systems that embrace a communicative competence approach to bilingual education undergirded by systematic processes such as the Joyce model (see Calderón, 1981, for planning, implementing, and evaluating bilingual teacher training programs).

George Blanco (1981) recently brought to national attention the fact that bilingual teachers have often found themselves inadequately prepared to deal with many concepts in L1 in classroom situations. He finds that research studies, professional literature, class lectures, in-service programs are almost exclusively in English. When teachers use English for oral communication, e.g., talking to one another in the hall or in the lounge, speaking to aides, and giving students directions for getting in line for the cafeteria, students are quick to conclude that English is the language of prestige. Thus, the onus is on the teachers, professors, researchers, bilingual constituencies in general to begin to work collectively toward this effort by applying communicative competence theories to make bilingual educators truly functional in two languages.

RECOMMENDED READINGS

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1. "The Role of Primary Language Development in Promoting Educational Success for Language Minority Students" by Jim Cummins.

2. "Bilingual Education and Second Language Acquisition Theory" by Stephen D. Krashen.

3. "Effective Use of the Primary Language in the Classroom" by Dorothy Legarreta-Marcaida.

4. "The Natural Approach in Bilingual Education" by Tracy Terrell.

5. "Reading Instruction for Language Minority Students" by Eleanor W. Thonis.

Activities

ACTIVITY I

Seminar/Workshop on: A Theoretical Framework for Communicative Competence in Bilingual Education

Mode: Small Group Process

Time: 1 hour

Number of Groups: 3

Materials Necessary: Packet I (Four Parts)
the 3 multiple choice questionnaires for Groups I, II, III;
overhead transparencies with answers;
overhead projector.

Task 1 Time alloted: 30 minutes

1. Participants divide into 3 groups and work collectively to answer the multiple choice questionnaire.
2. A recorder/reporter writes down the answers and any concerns that each question might have generated.

Task 2 Time alloted: 30 minutes

1. Each group receives the other two questionnaires (unanswered).
2. Each recorder/reporter reads the group answers and presents discussion concerns.
3. Correct answers are projected on the overhead.
4. Further clarification ensues through the participants themselves if necessary.

ACTIVITY I

DISCUSSION ITEMS FOR GROUP I

1. In the next twenty years the Spanish LEP population will:

   a. decrease 25%.
   b. concentrate in Colorado, Arizona, and New Mexico.
   c. be the same as the Asian LEP population.
   d. be 70% of all LEPs in the year 1000.
   e. none of the above.

2. The Title VII 1968 Regulations for Bilingual Education:

   a. were written to "provide services to the limited English-proficient students."
   b. demanded coverage to include speaking, understanding, reading, and writing.
   c. were for "children who are educationally disadvantaged."
   d. were to create an enrichment program for the limited English-speaking students.
   e. only a and b of the above.

3. Research evidence for the effectiveness of bilingual education:

   a. was the foundation for the 1968 regulations.
   b. is nonexistent.
   c. will begin in 1982.
   d. is quickly mounting.
   e. none of the above.
   f. only b and c are true.

4. Research has indicated that:

   a. teachers can be trained to observe children's language behavior and to make good estimates of the children's ability to perform in school.
   b. the most effective program for developing English skills is one with 75% English instruction and 25% Spanish instruction.
   c. the most effective program for developing English skills is one with 50% English instruction and 50% Spanish instruction.
   d. only a and b are true.
   e. none of the above.
   f. only a and c are true.

ACTIVITY I

DISCUSSION ITEMS FOR GROUP II

5. English-as-a-second-language methods, techniques, and tests in the U.S. are based on:

   a. audiolingual approaches.
   b. Chomsky and Bloomfield theories.
   c. mastery of language structure.
   d. emphasis of form rather than function.
   e. all of the above.
   f. none of the above.

6. Communicative competence means:

   a. emphasis is on form rather than function.
   b. grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic abilities.
   c. focusing on particular settings, functions, and notions.
   d. focusing only on phonology, morphology, lexical items, and syntax.
   e. only a and d of the above.
   f. only b and c of the above.

7. Current second language acquisition theory indicates that:

   a. there are two separate processes for developing a second language: acquisition and learning.
   b. grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable order.
   c. learning of grammar is much more important and develops fluency.
   d. students acquire structure by focusing on grammatical forms and analyzing them.
   e. by simply providing comprehensible input, spoken fluency will not emerge.
   f. students should begin to talk from the first day of class.

ACTIVITY I

DISCUSSION ITEMS FOR GROUP III

8. Bilingual education programs:

   a. confuse children and reduce their chances of academic success.
   b. such as the Rock Point Navajo Study prove that early reading instruction in English is best for achievement.
   c. such as the Edmonton Ukrainian-English found that students who were less fluent in Ukrainian were able to detect ambiguities in English sentence structures better than the fluent Ukrainian group.
   d. should not encourage minority parents to switch to English in the home.
   e. all of the above.
   f none of the above.

9. A theoretical framework for bilingual education should consider:

   a. that academic skills are interdependent in L1 and L2.
   b. that the more context-reduced and cognitively demanding the language task, the more it will be related to achievement.
   c. the developmental aspects of communicative proficiency in terms of the degree of active cognitive involvement in the task or activity.
   d. only b and c are true.
   e. all of the above.
   f. none of the above.

10. Teacher training programs for bilingual education:

   a. are too heavy on theory and too light on application.
   b. are for the most part conducted in English.
   c. utilize professional literature and other materials mostly in English.
   d. focus their language training component on communicative approach.
   e. all of the above.
   f. a, b, and c only.

ACTIVITY I

DISCUSSION ITEMS FOR GROUP I (ANSWERS)

1. In the next twenty years the Spanish LEP population will:

   a. decrease 25%.
   b. concentrate in Colorado, Arizona, and New Mexico.
[e] c. be the same as the Asian LEP population.
   d. be 70% of all LEPs in the year 1000.
   e. none of the above.

2. The Title VII 1968 Regulations for Bilingual Education:

   a. were written to "provide services to the limited English-proficient students."
   b. demanded coverage to include speaking, understanding, reading, and writing
[c] c. were for "children who are educationally disadvantaged."
   d. were to create an enrichment program for the limited-English speaking students.
   e. only a and b of the above.

3. Research evidence for the effectiveness of bilingual education:

   a. was the foundation for the 1968 regulations.
   b. is nonexistent.
[d] c. will begin in 1982.
   d. is quickly mounting.
   e. none of the above.
   f. only b and c are true.

4. Research has indicated that:

   a. teachers can be trained to observe children's language behavior and to make good estimates of the children's ability to perform in school.
   b. the most effective program for developing English skills is one with 75% English instruction and 25% Spanish instruction.
[f] c. the most effective program for developing English skills is one with 50% English instruction and 50% Spanish instruction.
   d. only a and b are true.
   e. none of the above.
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ACTIVITY I

DISCUSSION ITEMS FOR GROUP II (ANSWERS)

5. English-as-a-second-language methods, techniques, and tests in the U.S. are based on:

   a. audiolingual approaches.
   b. Chomsky and Bloomfield theories.
   c. mastery of language structure.
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6. Communicative competence means:

   a. emphasis is on form rather than function.
   b. grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic abilities.
   c. focusing on particular settings, functions, and notions.
[f] d. focusing only on phonology, morphology, lexical items, and syntax.
   e. only a and d of the above.
   f. only b and c of the above.

7. Current second language acquisition theory indicates that:

   a. there are two separate processes for developing a second language: acquisition and learning.
   b. grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable order.
   c. learning of grammar is much more important and develops
[a] fluency.
   d. students acquire structure by focusing on grammatical forms and analyzing them.
   e. by simply providing comprehensible input, spoken fluency will not emerge.
   f. students should begin to talk from the first day of class.

ACTIVITY I

DISCUSSION ITEMS FOR GROUP III (ANSWERS)

8. Bilingual education programs:

a. confuse children and reduce their chances of academic success.
b. such as the Rock Point Navajo Study prove that early reading instruction in English is best for achievement.
[d] c. such as the Edmonton Ukrainian-English found that students who were less fluent in Ukrainian were able to detect ambiguities in English sentence structures better than the fluent Ukrainian group.
d. should not encourage minority parents to switch to English in the home.
e. all of the above.
f none of the above.

9. A theoretical framework for bilingual education should consider:

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b. that the more context-reduced and cognitively demanding the language task, the more it will be related to achievement.
[e] c. the developmental aspects of communicative proficiency in terms of the degree of active cognitive involvement in the task or activity.
d. only b and c are true.
e. all of the above.
f. none of the above.

10. Teacher training programs for bilingual education:

a. are too heavy on theory and too light on application.
b. are for the most part conducted in English.
c. utilize professional literature and other materials mostly in English.
[f] d. focus their language training component on communicative approach.
e. all of the above.
f. a, b, and c only.

ACTIVITY II

Seminar/Workshop on: A Theoretical Framework for Communicative Competence in Bilingual Education

Mode: Small Group Process and Individual Tasks

Time: From 1 to 3 days

Number of Groups: 4 or 5 (no more than 5 persons in each)

Materials Necessary: Packet I (Four Parts)

Prerequisite: Knowledge and internalization of theories by Cummins, Krashen, Canale, Swain, and Strevens

Task 1 Time alloted: 10 minutes

Participants divide into groups and are asked to prepare an outline of how and what they would present to:

1. school board members (in 20 minutes)
2. administrators (in 1 hour)
3. teachers (in 2 hours)
4. teacher aides (in 1 hour)
5. Spanish-speaking parents (in 45 minutes)

on (1) second language acquisition theories, (2) communicative competence theories, and (3) the two continuums for BICS and CALP.

Task 2 Time alloted: 30 minutes

Each group selects a recorder/reporter to share the outline and discussion with total group.

NOTE: Experienced educators will want to elaborate more on the discussions as to how these presentations would apply in their school settings. Additional time should be alloted for this discussion

Task 3 Time alloted: 3 hours

Participants, working individually now, revise and add to their outline for a presentation and develop the transparencies or script for a 10 minute presentation to the audience of their choice; i.e., administrators, board members, etc.

Task 4 Time alloted: 4 hours
Type of facility: 5 small rooms

1. Participants return to their original groups of 5. Each member of the group will do his/her 20 minute presentation for the other 4 members.

2. After each presentation, members will provide immediate feedback by answering with the following open-ended statements.

   . What I liked about this presentation was . . .

   . You could probably improve the presentation by . . .

NOTE: Videotaping of the sessions is highly encouraged. If there is time, they could be sequenced over a longer period with the total group to make this possible instead of 5 groups performing back-to-back.

ACTIVITY III

For steps in conducting the following activities, please refer to the Management System manual.

A. Do a Force-Field Analysis of the driving and restraining forces existing in your district/department/university that impede or facilitate the implementation of a bilingual program.

B. Do a Force-Field Analysis of the driving and restraining forces existing in your classroom/district/department/university that impede or facilitate the adoption of a "communicative syllabus."

If the work group is large, it is suggested that it be broken up into groups of 4, 6, or 8 persons and be given different topics. Additional topics may include:

- Implementation of a new ESL program
- A full-fledged bilingual program such as the one proposed by Cummins.

Posttest

1. In the next twenty years the Spanish LEP population will:

   a. decrease 25%.
   b. concentrate in Colorado, Arizona, and New Mexico.
   c. be the same as the Asian LEP population.
   d. be 70% of all LEPs in the year 2000.
   e. none of the above.

2. The Title VII 1968 Regulations for Bilingual Education:

   a. were written to "provide services to the limited English-proficient students."
   b. demanded coverage to include speaking, understanding, reading, and writing.
   c. were for "children who are educationally disadvantaged."
   d. were to create an enrichment program for the limited English-speaking students.
   e. only a and b of the above.

3. Research evidence for the effectiveness of bilingual education:

   a. was the foundation for the 1968 regulations.
   b. is nonexistent.
   c. will begin in 1982.
   d. is quickly mounting.
   e. none of the above.
   f. only b and c are true.

4. Research has indicated that:

   a. teachers can be trained to observe children's language behavior and to make good estimates of the children's ability to perform in school.
   b. the most effective program for developing English skills is one with 75% English instruction and 25% Spanish instruction.
   c. the most effective program for developing English skills is one with 50% English instruction and 50% Spanish instruction.
   d. only a and b are true.
   e. none of the above.
   f. only a and c are true.

5. English-as-a-second-language methods, techniques, and tests in the U.S. are based on:

   a. audiolingual approaches.
   b. Chomsky and Bloomfield theories.
   c. mastery of language structure.
   d. emphasis of form rather than function.
   e. all of the above.
   f. none of the above.

6. Communicative competence means:

   a. emphasis is on form rather than function.
   b. grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic abilities.
   c. focusing on particular settings, functions, and notions.
   d. focusing only on phonology, morphology, lexical items, and syntax.
   e. only a and d of the above.
   f. only b and c of the above.

7. Current second language acquisition theory indicates that:

   a. there are two separate processes for developing a second language: acquisition and learning.
   b. grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable order.
   c. learning of grammar is much more important and develops fluency.
   d. students acquire structure by focusing on grammatical forms and analyzing them.
   e. by simply providing comprehensible input, spoken fluency will not emerge.
   f. students should begin to talk from the first day of class.

8. Bilingual education programs:

   a. confuse children and reduce their chances of academic success.
   b. such as the Rock Point Navajo study prove that early reading instruction in English is best for achievement.
   c. such as the Edmonton Ukrainian-English found that students who were less fluent in Ukrainian were able to detect ambiguities in English sentence structures better than the fluent Ukrainian group.
   d. should not encourage minority parents to switch to English in the home.
   e. all of the above.
   f. none of the above.

9. A theoretical framework for bilingual education should consider:

   a. that academic skills are interdependent in L1 and L2.
   b. that the more context-reduced and cognitively demanding the language task, the more it will be related to achievement.
   c. the developmental aspects of communicative proficiency in terms of the degree of active cognitive involvement in the task or activity.
   d. only b and c are true.
   e. all of the above.
   f. none of the above.

10. Teacher training programs for bilingual education:

   a. are too heavy on theory and too light on application.
   b. are for the most part conducted in English.

c. utilize professional literature and other materials mostly in English.
d. focus their language training component on communicative approach.
e. all of the above.
f. a, b, and c only.

Answer Key to Posttest

1. e
2. c
3. d
4. f
5. e
6. f
7. a
8. d
9. e
10. f

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